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TITLE: AN ENERGETICS TOTAL LOAD SEDIMENT TRANSPORT

MODEL FOR A PLANE SLOPING BEACH

AUTHOR: J. A. Bailard

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**NAVAL CIVIL ENGINEERING LABORATORY PORT HUENEME, CALIFORNIA 93043** 

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AN ENERGETICS TOTAL LOAD SEDIMENT TRANSPORT

MODEL FOR A PLANE SLOPING BEACH (Final), by

J. A. Bailard

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1. Sediment transport

2. Beach profile

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#### INTRODUCTION

Waves reaching a coastline are observed to break, releasing their energy and momentum within the narrow confines of the surfzone. This waveborne momentum flux gives rise to a longshore current, which contributes to the longshore sediment transport along the beach. Under equilibrium conditions, the longshore sediment transport takes place with no effect on the existing beach bathymetry. If interrupted, however, rapid alteration of the shoreline can occur, which may jeopardize nearshore structures. Recognizing the importance of these processes to Navy operations, the Independent Research program of the Naval Civil Engineering Laboratory sponsored a study to develop improved models to predict the magnitude and distribution of the longshore sediment transport rate as a function of incident wave and beach characteristics.

Present longshore current models are relatively well-developed, being based on a momentum balance between the longshore component of waveborne momentum flux and the bottom and lateral shear stresses associated with the longshore current. Early longshore current models (Bowen, 1969; Longuet-Higgins, 1970) assumed near normal wave angle incidence and weak longshore current strength in order to simplify their mathematical solution. Later models, such as those by Thornton (1970), James (1974), Liu and Dalrymple (1978), and Ostendorf and Madsen (1979), assumed arbitrary sized incident wave angles and longshore current strengths.

Present longshore sediment transport models are less well-developed. In general, these models reflect two distinct approaches: an energetics approach and a traction approach. The former includes models by Inman and Bagnold (1963), Komar (1971, 1977), Thornton (1973), Bowen (1981), and Bailard and Inman (1981), while the latter includes models by Bijker (1971), Swart (1976), and Madsen and Grant (1976). In both cases, these

approaches are based on adaptations of stream flow sediment transport models. The energetics approach, which is used in this report, is based on the stream transport model developed by Bagnold (1963, 1966).

Bagnold's energetics-based sediment transport model assumes that the sediment is transported in two distinct modes, differing by the way the sediment grains are supported. Sediment transported as bedload is supported by the bed via grain-to-grain interactions, while sediment transported as suspended load is supported by the stream fluid via turbulent diffusion. In both modes, energy is expended by the stream in transporting the sediment load. Bagnold, comparing the stream to a machine, defined the sediment transport efficiency as the ratio of the rate of energy expended in transporting either the bedload or the suspended load divided by the total rate of energy production of the stream.

For steady, two-dimensional stream flow, Bagnold (1963) developed the following total load sediment transport equation

$$i = i_B + i_S = \left(\frac{\varepsilon_B}{\tan\phi - \tan\beta} + \frac{\varepsilon_S}{\frac{W}{u} - \tan\beta}\right) \omega$$
 (1)

where

i = total immersed weight sediment transport rate (composed of the sum of the bedload transport rate,  $i_B$ , and the suspended load transport rate,  $i_S$ )

w = rate of energy production of the stream

u = mean velocity of the stream

 $tan\beta = slope$  of the stream bed

 $\phi$  = internal angle of friction of the sediment

W = fall velocity of the sediment

 $\varepsilon_R$  = bedload load efficiency

 $\varepsilon_{g}$  = suspended load efficiency

For stream flow conditions, Bagnold (1966) found that  $\varepsilon_{\rm B} \cong 0.13$  and  $\varepsilon_{\rm S} \cong 0.01$ .

For oscillatory flows, such as those found in the surfzone, Bagnold (1963) developed an alternative but related sediment transport equation. Bagnold reasoned that the oscillatory wave motion acts to move the sediment back and forth in an amount proportional to the local rate of energy dissipation. Although no net transport results from this motion, a steady current of arbitrary strength, when superimposed on the wave-induced oscillatory motion, is free to transport the sediment in the steady current's direction. This conceptual model resulted in the following sediment transport equation

$$i_{\theta} = K' \omega \frac{u_{\theta}}{u_{m}}$$
 (2)

where w = local rate of energy dissipation

u = magnitude of the oscillatory water velocity

 $u_{\Delta}$  = steady current in the  $\theta$  direction

 $i_{\theta}$  = time-averaged, immersed weight, sediment transport rate in the  $\theta$  direction

K' = Bagnold's oscillatory transport rate coefficient

Equation 2 has been used in the development of a number of longshore transport models, including those by Inman and Bagnold (1963), Komar (1971, 1977), and Thornton (1973). Inman and Bagnold's model is currently the most widely accepted and is equivalent in form to the equation recommended by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (Anonymous, 1973). Inman and Bagnold's model linearly relates the total spatially integrated, immersed weight, longshore transport rate,  $I_{\varrho}$ , to what has been erroneously (Longuet-Higgins, 1972) termed the longshore component of wave energy flux per unit length of beach,  $P_{\varrho}$ . The latter is defined as

$$P_{\ell} = (E C n)_b \sin \alpha_b \cos \alpha_b \tag{3}$$

where E = wave energy per unit length of crest

C = wave phase velocity

n = wave energy transport function

 $\alpha_h$  = incident breaker angle

b = subscript that denotes the value at the breakpoint

The resulting longshore transport equation, termed the wave power equation, is expressed as

$$I_{\varrho} = K P_{\varrho} \tag{4}$$

where K is a dimensionless constant. Komar and Inman (1970) found that when K=0.77, Equation 4 best fits the field data from 13 sand tracer experiments performed at El Moreno Beach, Mexico, and Silver Strand Beach, California.

Despite the general acceptance of Equations 2 and 4, their development is only loosely based on Bagnold's stream transport model (Equation 1). The latter suggests that an attempt should be made to differentiate between the bedload and suspended load transports within the surfzone and, in addition, the local bedslope should have some influence on the sediment transport rate. Physical reasoning also suggests that the time-averaging procedure implied by Equation 2 should be considered more carefully. Bailard and Inman (1981) and Bowen (1981) have attempted to correct some of these difficulties. Bailard and Inman used Bagnold's stream-based bedload model to derive a general form bedload equation that is valid for time-varying flow over an arbitrarily oriented sloping bottom. Their equation reduces to Bagnold's bedload equation for steady, two-dimensional stream flow. When applied to the surfzone, Bailard and Inman's results suggest that Equation 2 is only valid for weak longshore currents and near normal wave incidence (when suspended sediment transport is neglected).

Bowen (1981) applied Bagnold's total load sediment transport equation to the problem of on-offshore sediment transport on beaches. After generalizing Bagnold's total load Equation 1 for the special case of normally incident waves and steady on-offshore currents (no longshore currents), Bowen used Stokes second order wave theory and Longuet-Higgins' (1953) bottom streaming solutions to predict the equilibrium beach profile as a function of the incident wave characteristics. His results support observations that steep beaches are coarse-grained and flat beaches are fine-grained. Moreover, small, long-period waves cause a beach to accrete and large, short-period waves cause a beach to erode. Finally, a null-point hypothesis is supported.

At the present time, there is considerable uncertainty concerning the relative importance of bedload versus suspended load sediment transport within the surfzone. While in natural streams the suspended sediment transport rate generally dominates the bedload transport rate, field measurements suggest that in the surfzone, the suspended sediment transport rate accounts for less than 20% of the total (Komar, 1978). These measurements, however, implicitly assume that all sediment transported within approximately 10 cm of the bottom is bedload. In stream flow, however, the bedload transport is generally believed to take place within a few millimeters of the stationary bed. As a consequence, it would seem that much of the surfzone sediment transport presently considered to be bedload may, in fact, be suspended load. This hypothesis is supported by Bowen's (in press) on-offshore transport model, which suggests that the relative importance of the two sediment transport rates is a function of the orbital velocity magnitude divided by the sediment fall velocity, u\_/W.

The purpose of this report is to present a total load (bedload and suspended load) sediment transport model, developed for time-varying flow over an arbitrarily sloping planar bed. The model is similar to Bailard and Inman's (1981) bedload transport model in that it predicts the local, nearbottom sediment transport rate as a function of the nearbottom water velocity vector. For present purposes, nearbottom is

considered to be that region near the bottom where the velocity distribution is nearly logarithmic (see the Appendix). The model is similar to Bowen's (1981) model in that Bagnold's total load stream transport model (Equation 1) is used as a working hypothesis. The model is specialized for idealized surfzone conditions consisting of steady longshore and on-offshore currents in addition to an oscillatory wave-induced current having a local wave angle. The model is found to predict the local equilibrium beach slope as well as the local longshore sediment transport rate. In addition, the model is combined with Ostendorf and Madsen's (1979) longshore current model to predict the magnitude and distribution of the longshore sediment transport rate. A discussion of the model's limitations can be found in the concluding remarks.

# DEVELOPMENT OF A TIME-VARYING TOTAL LOAD SEDIMENT TRANSPORT EQUATION

Consider the time-varying flow of water with vector velocity  $\vec{u}_t$  moving over a plane sloping bed of cohesionless sediment. Figure 1 shows the x-axis is directed upslope and the y-axis is directed cross-slope. The magnitude of the slope is  $\tan\beta$ , and the velocity  $\vec{u}_t$  has an arbitrary orientation relative to the x-axis but is coplanar with the x-y plane. The shear stress on the bed,  $\vec{\tau}_t$ , is assumed to be described by

$$\vec{\tau}_{t} = \rho c_{f} | \vec{u}_{t} | \vec{u}_{t}$$
 (5)

where  $\rho$  = water density

 $c_f = drag$  coefficient for the bed

t = subscript that denotes a time-varying quantity

Similarly, the local rate of energy dissipation,  $\boldsymbol{w}_{t},$  is assumed to be equal to

$$w_{t} = \rho c_{f} \left| \vec{u}_{t} \right|^{3} \tag{6}$$

Note that for simplicity, any phase difference between the bed stress and the nearbottom fluid velocity is neglected.

Following Bailard and Inman (1981), the local immersed weight sediment transport rate,  $\vec{i}_t$ , is assumed to be a time-varying vector quantity with the following form

$$\vec{i}_t = \left(\vec{K}_{Bt} + \vec{K}_{St}\right) \omega_t \tag{7}$$

where  $\vec{K}_{Bt}$  and  $\vec{K}_{St}$  are the dimensionless time-varying vectors associated with the bedload and suspended load transport rates, respectively. Assuming the bedload transport to behave as a granular-fluid shear layer, Bailard and Inman (1981) found that

$$\vec{K}_{Bt} = \frac{\varepsilon_B}{\tan\phi} \left( \frac{\vec{u}_t}{|\vec{u}_t|} - \frac{\tan\beta}{\tan\phi} \hat{i} \right)$$
 (8)

where

 $\varepsilon_{R}$  = bedload efficiency

tano = internal coefficient of friction of the sand

Equation 8 suggests that the bedload transport rate vector is composed of two components, one directed parallel to the instantaneous velocity vector and the other directed downslope.

Bagnold's (1963, 1966) conceptual model of suspended sediment transport in streams is relatively simple. He reasoned that the stream supports the suspended sediment via turbulent diffusion. While suspended, the sediment grains move downstream with nearly the local fluid velocity. At the same time, however, they are also falling vertically relative to the local supporting fluid with a fall velocity, W. In equilibrium, the center of mass of the suspended load must remain at a constant height above the stream bed; thus, the transport process extracts energy from the stream in an amount equal to the product of the immersed weight of

the suspended sediment and the sediment fall velocity. Using his analogy of the stream as a sediment transporting machine, Bagnold assumed that the power expended in transporting the suspended sediment is a constant fraction,  $\varepsilon_{\rm S}$ , of the total power produced by the stream, w. Extending this conceptual model to time-varying flow over an arbitrarily sloping planar bed, it can be shown (see the Appendix) that

$$\vec{K}_{S_{t}} = \varepsilon_{S} \frac{\left| \vec{u}_{t} \right|}{W} \left( \frac{\vec{u}_{t}}{\left| \vec{u}_{t} \right|} - \varepsilon_{S} \tan \beta \left| \frac{\vec{u}_{t}}{W} \right| \hat{i} \right)$$
(9)

Similar to the bedload transport rate, the suspended sediment transport rate vector is seen to consist of two components, one directed parallel to the instantaneous velocity vector and the other directed downslope. The latter is associated with the downslope component of the immersed weight of the suspended sediment.

Combining Equations 6, 7, 8, and 9, and time-averaging over a wave period T, where

$$\langle \quad \rangle = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \left( \quad \right) dt \tag{10}$$

then the following total load sediment transport equation is obtained

$$\langle \vec{i}_{t} \rangle = \rho c_{f} \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left( \langle |\vec{u}_{t}|^{2} \vec{u}_{t} \rangle - \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} \langle |\vec{u}_{t}|^{3} \rangle \hat{i} \right)$$

$$+ \rho c_{f} \frac{\varepsilon_{S}}{W} \left( \langle |\vec{u}_{t}|^{3} \vec{u}_{t} \rangle - \frac{\varepsilon_{S}}{W} \tan \beta \langle |\vec{u}_{t}|^{5} \rangle \hat{i} \right)$$

$$(11)$$

Bagnold's stream-based total load sediment transport equation is seen to be a special case of Equation 11, since both equations are equal when  $\tan \beta \ll 1$  and  $\overrightarrow{u}_t = -\overrightarrow{u}$  i. Equation 11 is also equivalent to Bowen's (1981) initial equation for on-offshore sediment transport conditions

 $(\vec{u}_t = |\vec{u}_t|\hat{i})$ , except for the extra factor  $\varepsilon_S$  in the final term. This difference is of particular importance in relation to the equilibrium beach slope, which will be discussed more fully.

#### LITTORAL SEDIMENT TRANSPORT

Due to its general form, Equation 11 is not particularly useful unless nearbottom water velocity measurements are available. These measurements have recently become possible with the development of robust electromagnetic current meters (Cunningham et al., 1979). For modeling purposes, however, it is desirable to be able to express Equation 11 in terms of a steady current,  $\bar{u}$ , oriented at an angle  $\theta$  to the beach normal and an oscillatory wave-induced velocity,  $\bar{u}$ , oriented at an angle  $\alpha$  to the beach normal. Figure 1 shows the instantaneous velocity vector,  $\bar{u}_{t}$ , may be expressed in terms of its x and y components

$$\vec{u}_{t} = (\vec{u} \cos\alpha + \vec{u} \cos\theta) \hat{i} + (\vec{u} \sin\alpha + \vec{u} \sin\theta) \hat{j}$$
 (12)

Observation (Huntley, 1976) has shown that while the wave-induced velocity is by definition oscillatory ( $\langle \widetilde{u} \rangle = 0$ ), it is not symmetrically distributed in time. Instead, there is a brief high-velocity onshore flow followed by a longer but less intense offshore flow. As a consequence, the third and fifth oscillatory velocity moments,  $\langle \widetilde{u}^3 \rangle$  and  $\langle \widetilde{u}^5 \rangle$ , are nonzero. Following Bailard and Inman (1981) or Bowen (1981), this asymmetry may be expressed by assuming the following approximate form for  $\widetilde{u}$ 

$$\tilde{u} \cong u_m \cos \sigma t + u_{m2} \cos 2\sigma t + \dots$$
 (13)

where  $u_m > u_{m2}$ , etc., and  $\sigma = 2\pi/T$ .

Equations 12 and 13 may be used to evaluate the time-averaged scalar and vector quantities in Equation 11. After considerable manipulation, the following expressions are obtained for the on-offshore,  $\langle i_x \rangle$ , and the longshore,  $\langle i_y \rangle$ , sediment transport rates

$$\langle i_{x} \rangle = \rho c_{f} u_{m}^{3} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \psi_{1} \cos \alpha + \delta_{u}^{3} + \delta_{u} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \cos^{2} \alpha + \delta_{v}^{2} \right) \right. \right.$$

$$\left. + \delta_{v} \sin \alpha \cos \alpha - \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} (u_{3})^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left[ \psi_{2} \cos \alpha + \delta_{u}(u_{3})^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] - \frac{u_{m}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2} \tan \beta (u_{5})^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\}$$

$$\left. \langle i_{y} \rangle = \rho c_{f} u_{m}^{3} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \psi_{1} \sin \alpha + \delta_{v}^{3} + \delta_{v} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \sin^{2} \alpha + \delta_{u}^{2} \right) + \delta_{u} \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \right] + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left[ \psi_{2} \sin \alpha + \delta_{v}(u_{3})^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right\}$$

$$\left. + \delta_{u} \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \right\} + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left[ \psi_{2} \sin \alpha + \delta_{v}(u_{3})^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

$$\left. (15)$$

where the relative steady current strengths  $\delta$ ,  $\delta_n$ , and  $\delta_v$  are defined as

$$\delta = \frac{\bar{u}}{u_m} \tag{16a}$$

$$\delta_{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{u}}}{\bar{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{m}}} \cos \theta \tag{16b}$$

$$\delta_{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{u}}}{\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{m}}} \sin\theta \tag{16c}$$

The velocity moments  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  are defined as

$$\psi_1 = \langle \tilde{u}^3 \rangle / u_m^3 \tag{17}$$

$$\psi_2 = \langle |\vec{u}|^3 \tilde{u} \rangle / u_m^4 \tag{18}$$

and the integrals (u3)\* and (u5)\* are defined as

$$(u3)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} (\delta^{2} + 2 \delta \cos(\theta - \alpha) \cos \alpha t + \cos^{2} \alpha t)^{3/2} dt$$
 (19)

$$(u5)^* = \frac{1}{T} \int (\delta^2 + 2 \delta \cos(\theta - \alpha) \cos \sigma t + \cos^2 \sigma t)^{5/2} dt \qquad (20)$$

Bailard and Inman (1981) obtained approximate analytic expressions for the integral (u3)\* for the special cases of weak and strong steady currents. In the present development, however, both (u3)\* and (u5)\* are left unevaluated. Later, when the model is combined with Ostendorf and Madsen's (1979) longshore current model in order to predict the distribution of the longshore sediment transport rate as a function of the incident wave conditions, these integrals are evaluated using a five-point Gaussian quadrature equation, as used by Ostendorf and Madsen, i.e.,

Equation 21 can be shown to be accurate to within  $\pm 2\%$  for  $\delta \le 2$  and  $(\theta-\alpha) \le 90$  degrees. Alternatively, (u3)\* and (u5)\* may be interpolated from Figures 2 and 3.

Equations 14 and 15 are still unsuitable for modeling purposes because of the presence of the two skewness terms  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$ . Following Bailard and Inman (1981), however,  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  may be eliminated from Equation 15 by assuming that the beach is in local on-offshore equilibrium ( $\langle i_{\mathbf{x}} \rangle = 0$ ). Under this condition, Equation 14 becomes

$$\frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \psi_{1} \cos \alpha + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \psi_{2} \cos \alpha = \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} (u3)^{*} - \delta_{u}^{3} - \delta_{u} \right]$$

$$\left( \frac{1}{2} + \cos^{2} \alpha + \delta_{v}^{2} \right) - \delta_{v}$$

$$\sin \alpha \cos \alpha - \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \delta_{u} (u3)^{*}$$

$$+ \frac{u_{m}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2} \tan \beta (u5)^{*} \qquad (22)$$

Combining Equations 22 and 15, one obtains

$$\langle i_{y} \rangle = \rho c_{f} u_{m}^{3} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \delta_{v}^{3} + \delta_{u}^{2} \delta_{v} + \frac{\delta_{v}}{2} + \left( \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} (u_{3})^{*} - \delta_{v}^{2} \delta_{u} - \frac{\delta_{u}}{2} - \delta_{u}^{3} \right) \tan \alpha \right] + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S}$$

$$\left[ \delta_{v} (u_{3})^{*} - \delta_{u} (u_{3})^{*} \tan \alpha \right] + \frac{u_{m}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2} \tan \beta (u_{5})^{*} \tan \alpha \right\}$$

$$(23)$$

Finally, when it is assumed that  $\delta_u << \delta_v$ , then Equation 23 reduces to the desired longshore transport equation

$$\langle i_{y} \rangle = \rho c_{f} u_{m}^{3} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \delta_{v}^{3} + \frac{\delta_{v}}{2} + \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} (u_{3}) + \tan \alpha \right] + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \delta_{v} (u_{3}) + \frac{u_{m}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2} \tan \beta (u_{5}) + \tan \alpha \right\}$$

$$(24)$$

Equation 24 can be compared with Bagnold's oscillatory transport Equation 2, which is rewritten for longshore transport conditions as

$$\langle i_{\mathbf{v}} \rangle = \frac{4}{3\pi} \rho c_{\mathbf{f}} K' u_{\mathbf{m}}^{3} \delta_{\mathbf{v}}$$
 (25)

Comparing Equations 24 and 25, both equations are equal if

$$K' = \frac{3\pi}{4} \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \delta_{V}^{2} + \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} \frac{(u3)^{*}}{\delta_{V}} \tan \alpha \right] + \frac{3\pi}{4} \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left[ (u3)^{*} + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \tan \beta \frac{(u5)^{*}}{\delta_{V}} \tan \alpha \right]$$
(26)

The above equation suggests that instead of K' being constant, it is a function of  $\delta_{_{\bf V}}$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\tan\beta$ , and  $u_{_{\bf m}}/W$ . This is in accordance with our earlier hypothesis based on Bagnold's stream transport (Equation 1). Note that for the special case when  $\delta_{_{\bf V}}$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\tan\beta$ , and  $u_{_{\bf m}}/W$  are very small, then Bailard and Inman's (1981) result is recovered

$$K' = \frac{3\pi}{8} \frac{\varepsilon_B}{\tan \phi} \tag{27}$$

With typical surfzone conditions (tanß = 0.10,  $\alpha$  = 10 degrees,  $\epsilon_{B}$  = 0.21, and  $\epsilon_{S}$  = 0.025) assumed, Figure 4 shows Bagnold's transport coefficient K' as a function of the dimensionless longshore current strength,  $\delta_{_{\mbox{\bf V}}}$ , and the ratio,  $u_{_{\mbox{\bf m}}}$ /W. The coefficient K' is seen to be a strong function of both  $\delta_{_{\mbox{\bf V}}}$  and  $u_{_{\mbox{\bf m}}}$ /W. Only for weak longshore currents and small values of  $u_{_{\mbox{\bf m}}}$ /W does K' approach the constant value expressed by Equation 27.

### EQUILIBRIUM BEACH SLOPES

In addition to predicting the longshore sediment transport rate, the present model can be used to predict the equilibrium beach slope as well. By definition, a beach slope is in local equilibrium when the divergence of the time-averaged sediment transport rate vector is zero, i.e.,

$$\frac{\partial^{\langle i_x \rangle}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^{\langle i_y \rangle}}{\partial y} = 0 \tag{28}$$

When a two-dimensional, steady-state beach is assumed, then  $\langle i \rangle$  = constant and  $\langle i \rangle$  = 0. If the beach slope tanß is small, then the latter condition applied to Equation 14 yields

$$\tan \beta = \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \psi_{1} \cos \alpha + \delta_{u}^{3} + \delta_{u} \delta_{v}^{2} + \delta_{u} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \cos^{2} \alpha \right) + \delta_{v} \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \right] + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left[ \psi_{2} \cos \alpha + \delta_{u} (u3)^{*} \right] \right\}$$

$$\cdot \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan^{2} \phi} (u3)^{*} + \frac{u_{m}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2} (u5)^{*} \right\}^{-1}$$
(29)

For normal wave incidence, negligible longshore currents, and weak on-offshore currents, Equation 29 becomes

$$\tan \beta = \frac{\frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left( \psi_{1} + \frac{3}{2} \delta_{u} \right) + \frac{u_{m}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left( \psi_{2} + \frac{4}{3\pi} \delta_{u} \right)}{\frac{4}{3\pi} \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan^{2} \phi} + \frac{16}{15\pi} \frac{u_{m}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2}}$$
(30)

Equation 30 is closely related to the equilibrium beach slope equation developed by Bowen (1981). The two equations are most easily compared if the skewness factors,  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$ , and the relative on-offshore current strength,  $\delta_u$ , are estimated from Stoke's second-order wave theory and Longuet-Higgins' (1953) bottom drift model, respectively. Following Bowen (1981), we assume that

$$\tilde{u} = u_m \cos \sigma t + \frac{3}{4} \frac{u_m^2}{C} \sinh^{-2} kh \cos 2\sigma t$$
 (31)

and

$$\bar{u} \cos\theta = \frac{u_m^2}{C} \tag{32}$$

where C = wave phase velocity

k = wave number

h = local water depth

Combining Equations 12, 17, 18, 31, and 32, the skewnesses,  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2,$  are found to be equal to

$$\psi_1 = \frac{9}{16} \frac{u_m}{C} \sinh^{-2}kh \tag{33}$$

and

$$\psi_2 = \frac{12}{5\pi} \frac{u_m}{C} \sinh^{-2}kh + \frac{4}{\pi} \frac{u_m}{C}$$
 (34)

and the dimensionless on-offshore current strength,  $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathrm{u}}$ , is equal to

$$\delta_{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{m}}}{\mathbf{C}} \tag{35}$$

Combining Equations 30, 33, 34, and 35, the equilibrium beach slope equation then becomes

$$\tan \beta = \frac{\frac{\varepsilon_B}{\tan \phi} \left( \frac{27\pi}{64} \frac{u_m}{C} \sinh^{-2}kh + \frac{9\pi}{8} \frac{u_m}{C} \right) + \frac{u_m}{W} \varepsilon_S \left( \frac{9}{5} \frac{u_m}{C} \sinh^{-2}kh + 4 \frac{u_m}{C} \right)}{\frac{\varepsilon_B}{\tan^2 \phi} + \frac{4}{5} \frac{u_m^2}{W^2} \varepsilon_S^2}$$

. . . . . . . . . . (36)

The principal difference between Bowen's equilibrium beach slope equation and Equation 36 is that the latter has an  $\epsilon_S^2$  in the denominator instead of an  $\epsilon_S$ . As a result, the slope effect in the suspended sediment

transport rate in Equation 36 is  $1/\epsilon_{\rm S}$  or approximately 40 times less than in Bowen's equation. Predicted equilibrium beach slopes for strong suspension conditions are thus significantly greater in the present model.

Following Bowen (1981) and noting that

$$\frac{\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{m}}}{\mathbf{C}} = \frac{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{k}}{\sin \mathbf{k}\mathbf{h}} \tag{37a}$$

$$\frac{u_{m}}{W} = \frac{a \sigma}{W \sinh kh}$$
 (37b)

$$k \cong \frac{k_0}{\tanh^{1/2} k_0 h} \tag{37c}$$

where  $k_{\lambda}$  is the deepwater wave number, then the modified beach slope,  $tan\beta/ak_{\Omega}$ , may be plotted as a function of the parameters  $k_{\Omega}h$  and  $a\sigma/W$ (Figure 5). The resulting figure is qualitatively very similar to the figure obtained by Bowen. Both figures show that the beach slope increases with decreasing depth, increasing fall velocity, and increasing wave period. All three features are generally observed in nature. A null point hypothesis is also supported in that sediment coarser than the equilibrium grain size moves onshore, while sediment finer than the equilibrium moves offshore. The biggest discrepancy between the present model and that which is observed in nature is in the magnitude of the predicted equilibrium beach slope in shallow water. The present model significantly overpredicts slopes that are actually observed or that are predicted by Bowen's model. The evidence, however, is inconclusive in evaluating either model because Stoke's second-order wave theory is not valid in shallow water. As a result, it is best to consider Equation 34 or Figure 5 as indicative only of trends and not of actual magnitudes of the equilibrium beach slope.

In principle, simultaneous measurements of nearbottom surfzone water velocities and surfzone beach profiles taken over a considerable length of time should be able to resolve this uncertainty. A preliminary analysis of field data from the Nearshore Sediment Transport Study at

Torrey Pines Beach suggests that autosuspension conditions can occur relatively frequently when using a model such as Bowen's, which is compatible with Bagnold's equations. This, of course, leads to momentary infinite offshore suspended sediment transport rates, which seems untenable. The present model avoids this problem for reasons discussed in the Appendix. A more comprehensive study of this question is needed, however, before any conclusions can be made.

The above discussion pertained only to normally incident waves with negligible longshore currents. Equation 29, however, permits an evaluation of the relative effects of wave angle incidence and longshore current strength on the local equilibrium beach slope. Due to the complexity of Equation 29, it is necessary to consider nominal surfzone conditions where  $\varepsilon_{\rm B}=0.21$ ,  $\varepsilon_{\rm S}=0.025$ ,  $\psi_1=0.10$ ,  $\psi_2=0.10$ , and  $\tan\phi=0.63$ . Figure 6 shows  $\tan\beta$  plotted as a function of the relative longshore current strength,  $\delta_{\rm V}$ , and the local wave angle,  $\alpha$ . It is evident that for these conditions,  $\tan\beta$  is a strong function of the longshore current strength, decreasing with increasing  $\delta_{\rm V}$  for  $\delta_{\rm V}>0.2$ . The equilibrium beach slope is a somewhat weaker function of the local wave angle,  $\alpha$  increasing slightly with increasing  $\alpha$  for  $\delta_{\rm V}>0.04$ .

The sensitivity of the equilibrium beach slope to the longshore current strength suggests a mechanism for the formation of a breakpoint bar and trough. Field and laboratory observations of longshore currents suggest that the longshore current strength increases with distance from the shoreline until reaching a maximum near the breakpoint. It subsequently decreases with additional distance offshore. Figure 6 suggests that the effect of the longshore current on the equilibrium beach profile would be to flatten the profile in the area of the maximum longshore current (i.e., just inside the breakpoint). This flattening would, in effect, create a bar and trough type of feature, with the bar located seaward of the current maximum and the trough located shoreward of the maximum.

## SURFZONE SEDIMENT TRANSPORT DISTRIBUTION AND INTEGRATED TOTAL

Equation 15 predicts the local total longshore transport rate as a function of the local wave-induced velocity magnitude,  $\mathbf{u}_{\mathrm{m}}$ , the local wave angle,  $\alpha$ , and the local longshore current,  $\delta_{\mathrm{V}}$ . In order to predict the distribution of the longshore sediment transport rate across the surfzone as a function of the incident wave conditions, it is necessary to incorporate a longshore current model. A review of existing longshore current models suggests that Ostendorf and Madsen's (1979) model is most suitable for the present study. The important features of their model are that finite wave height, longshore current strength, and incident wave angle effects are incorporated, as are the effects of lateral momentum exchange.

Ostendorf and Madsen's (1979) longshore current model uses a similarity form of solution, where the fundamental solution is approximately equal to Longuet-Higgins' (1970) linear solution, and correction factors are included to account for the effects of finite longshore current strength, incident wave angle, and breaker height. The model has the following form

$$v = \lambda n_b \cos \alpha_b v_c v^*$$
 (38)

where

 $v_c^{*}$  = linear longshore current distribution

 $\lambda$  = finite current strength factor

n<sub>b</sub> = factor equivalent to the wave energy transport function
 at the breakpoint

 $\cos\alpha_h$  = finite incident wave angle factor

The dimensionless longshore current distribution, v\*, has the following form

$$v^* = c_1 \left( \frac{1 - c_2}{c_2 - c_3} \right) x^{*3} + c_1 x^* \qquad (P \neq 0.4, x^{*\leq 1})$$
 (39)

$$v^* = c_1 \left( \frac{1 - c_3}{c_2 - c_3} \right) x^{*2}$$
 (P \( \pi \ 0.4, x^\* > 1 \)

$$v^* = 0.26 x^* - 0.71 x^* \ln x^*$$
 (P = 0.4,  $x^* \le 1$ )

$$v^* = 0.26 x^{-1.71}$$
 (P = 0.4,  $x^{*>1}$ )

where

$$c_{1} = (1 - 2.5 P)^{-1}$$

$$c_{2} = -\frac{1}{8} - \left(\frac{1}{64} + \frac{1}{P}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$c_{3} = -\frac{3}{4} + \left(\frac{9}{16} + \frac{1}{P}\right)^{1/2}$$
(40)

The dimensionless distance from the shoreline,  $x^*$  (see Figure 1), is defined as

$$x^* = \frac{x - x_S}{x_B - x_S} \tag{41}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_S$  and  $\mathbf{x}_B$  are the positions of the shoreline and breakpoint, respectively. The lateral mixing parameter, P, is defined as

$$P = \frac{\pi \Gamma \tan \Delta}{2 c_f}$$
 (42)

where  $\Gamma$  is a lateral mixing coefficient and  $tan\Delta$  is equal to the average beach slope,  $tan\beta$ , modified to account for the wave setup, i.e.,

$$tan\Delta = tan\beta \left(1 + \frac{3}{8} \gamma_b^2\right)^{-1} \tag{43}$$

Based on laboratory velocity profiles, Ostendorf and Madsen found that  $\Gamma\cong 0.13$ .

In deriving Equation 38, it is assumed that the local wave-height-to-water-depth ratio,  $\gamma$  = H/h, has the following distribution

$$\gamma = \gamma_b \qquad (x \neq 1)$$

$$\gamma = \gamma_b \left(\frac{h_b}{h}\right)^{5/4} \qquad (x \neq 1)$$
(44)

In addition, the characteristic longshore current magnitude,  $\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{c}}$ , is defined as

$$\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{c}} = \delta_{\mathbf{c}} \mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{mb}} \tag{45}$$

where the magnitude of the oscillatory wave velocity at the breakpoint,  $\mathbf{u}_{mh}$ , is obtained from shallow water wave theory, i.e.,

$$u_{\rm mb} \approx \frac{\gamma}{2} \sqrt{g h_{\rm b}} \tag{46}$$

and the relative longshore current strength,  $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\boldsymbol{c}},$  is defined as

$$\delta_{c} = \frac{5\pi \tan \Delta \sin \alpha_{b}}{8 c_{f}} \tag{47}$$

Ostendorf and Madsen present an iterative procedure for estimating the breakpoint values of H, h, and n as a function of the incident wave conditions. In addition, the finite current parameter,  $\lambda$ , is obtained iteratively from the parameters  $n_b$ ,  $\alpha_b$ ,  $\delta_c$ , and P.

Combining the longshore current Equation 38 and the longshore transport Equation 24, and noting that

$$u_{m} = u_{mb} \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \sqrt{x^{*}}$$
 (48)

and

$$\delta_{v} = \delta_{c} \lambda n_{b} \cos \alpha_{b} \frac{\gamma_{b}}{\gamma \sqrt{\frac{v^{*}}{x^{*}}}}$$
(49)

then the longshore transport rate distribution becomes

$$\langle i_{y} \rangle = \rho c_{f} u_{mb}^{3} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon_{B}}{\tan \phi} \left[ \frac{\delta_{c}}{2} \lambda n_{b} \cos \alpha_{b} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{2} v^{*} x^{*} + \delta_{c}^{3} \lambda^{3} n_{b}^{3} \cos^{3} \alpha_{b} v^{*}^{3} + \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} (u_{3})^{*} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{3} x^{*}^{3/2} \tan \alpha \right] + \frac{u_{mb}}{W} \varepsilon_{S} \left[ \delta_{c} \lambda n_{b} \cos \alpha_{b} (u_{3})^{*} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{3} v^{*} x^{*}^{3/2} \right] + \frac{u_{mb}^{2}}{W^{2}} \varepsilon_{S}^{2} \tan \beta \left[ (u_{5})^{*} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{5} x^{*}^{5/2} \tan \alpha \right] \right\}$$

$$(50)$$

Equation 50 can be normalized by dividing by the bedload transport rate at the breakpoint under weak current, near normal wave incidence conditions with no lateral mixing,  $i_c$ , where

$$i_c = \frac{1}{2} \rho c_f \frac{\epsilon_B}{\tan \phi} n_b \delta_c u_{mb}^3 \cos \alpha_b$$
 (51)

Following this procedure, Equation 50 becomes

$$\langle i_{y}^{*} \rangle = \frac{\langle i_{y} \rangle}{i_{c}} = \lambda \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{2} v^{*} x^{*} + 2 \delta_{c}^{2} \lambda^{3} n_{b}^{2} \cos^{2}\alpha_{b} v^{*}^{3}$$

$$+ \frac{2}{\delta_{c} n_{b} \cos\alpha_{b}} \frac{\tan\beta}{\tan\phi} (u_{3})^{*} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{3} x^{*}^{3/2} \tan\alpha$$

$$+ \frac{u_{mb}}{w} \frac{\varepsilon_{S}}{\varepsilon_{B}} \tan\phi \cdot \left[ 2 \lambda (u_{3})^{*} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{3} v^{*}x^{*}^{3/2} \right]$$

$$+ \frac{u_{mb}^{2}}{w^{2}} \frac{\varepsilon_{S}^{2}}{\varepsilon_{B}} \tan\phi \tan\beta$$

$$\cdot \left[ \frac{2}{\delta_{c} n_{b} \cos\alpha_{b}} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{5} (u_{5})^{*} x^{*}^{5/2} \tan\alpha \right]$$
(52)

Because of its complexity, Equation 52 is difficult to generalize in a simple manner. Nevertheless, assuming nominal surfzone conditions  $(\tan\beta=0.1,\,\lambda=1.0,\,n_b=1.0,\,\alpha_b=10$  degrees,  $\delta_c=0.5,\,P=0.2,\,\epsilon_B=0.21,\,$  and  $\epsilon_S=0.025),\,$  the distribution of <code><i\*></code> can be plotted as a function of the ratio  $u_{mb}/W$  (Figure 7). In Figure 7, several features can be seen. First, the profiles are a strong function of the parameter  $u_{mb}/W$ . Increasing values of  $u_{mb}/W$  strongly increases the total load sediment transport rate. Another feature of the profiles is the slope discontinuity at the breakpoint (x\*=1). This feature is a curiosity associated with the slope discontinuity in the distribution of  $\gamma$  at this point. In reality, this discontinuity would not exist. A final feature of the profiles is that the relative location of the sediment transport rate maximum is seaward of the maximum longshore current.

The ratio of the normalized suspended sediment transport rate divided by the normalized bedload transport rate,  $i_S^*/i_B^*$ , is also a function of the distance from the beach. Figure 8 shows a plot of the distribution of the ratio  $i_S^*/i_B^*$  as a function of the ratio  $u_{mb}/W$  for the same surfzone conditions as those assumed for Figure 7. As might be expected, the ratio increases with distance offshore until the breakpoint, and then begins to decrease. Another anticipated result is that the ratio increases throughout the nearshore with increasing values of  $u_{mb}/W$ .

A more easily measured quantity than the longshore transport rate distribution is the spatially integrated total longshore transport rate,  $\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{Q}}$ , defined as

$$I_{\ell} = \int_{-\infty}^{x_s} \langle i_y \rangle d_x = \frac{h_b i_c}{\tan \Delta} \int_{0}^{\infty} \langle i_y^* \rangle dx^*$$
 (53)

Substituting Equations 50, 51, and 52 into Equation 53 and noting that

$$E_{b} = \frac{1}{8} \rho g H_{b}^{2}$$
 (54)

and

$$(C n)_b = \frac{2 n_b}{\gamma_b} u_{mb}$$
 (55)

then Equation 53 becomes

$$I_{\varrho} = \frac{5\pi}{16} \frac{Y_b \epsilon_B}{\tan \phi} \int_0^{\infty} \langle i_y^* \rangle dx^* (E C n)_b \sin \alpha_b \cos \alpha_b$$
 (56)

Comparing Equation 56 with the wave power Equation 4, the wave power coefficient K is seen to have the following form

$$K = \frac{5\pi}{16} \frac{\gamma_b \epsilon_B}{\tan \phi} \int_0^\infty \langle i_y^* \rangle dx^*$$
 (57)

Instead of being constant, Equation 57 suggests that K is a complex function of the incident wave conditions, the beach slope, and the sediment size. For the special case of negligible lateral mixing, weak longshore current strength, near normal breaker angle, small breaker height, and small water-velocity-to-fall-velocity ratio, K becomes a constant,  $K_0$ , where

$$K_{o} = \frac{5\pi}{48} \frac{Y_{b} \epsilon_{B}}{\tan \Phi}$$
 (58)

Using  $K_{o}$  to normalize the wave power coefficient, we obtain

$$K^{*} = \frac{K}{K_{o}} = 3 \int_{0}^{\infty} \langle i_{y}^{*} \rangle dx^{*}$$
 (59)

Again the normalized wave power coefficient, K\*, is a complex function of surfzone parameters. To illustrate its behavior, we assume nominal surfzone conditions where  $\tan\Delta=0.1$ ,  $n_b=1.0$ ,  $\lambda=1.0$ ,  $\gamma_b=1.0$ , P=0.2,  $\epsilon_B=0.21$ , and  $\epsilon_S=0.025$ . Figure 9 shows K\* plotted as a function of the relative longshore current strength,  $\delta_c$ , the breaker angle,  $\alpha_b$ , and the ratio  $u_{mb}/W$ . For small values of  $u_{mb}/W$ , K\* is seen to be nearly independent of  $\delta_c$  or  $\alpha_b$ . As the ratio  $u_{mb}/W$  increases, however, K\* also increases, becoming a function of  $\delta_c$  and  $\alpha_b$ . Finally, K\* decreases with increasing longshore current strength and increases with increasing breaker angle. These results will vary, however, for different input conditions.

The relative overall fraction of suspended sediment transport versus bedload transport,  $I_S/I_B$ , may also be plotted as a function of  $\delta_c$ ,  $\alpha_b$ , and  $u_{mb}/W$ . Assuming the same surfzone conditions, Figure 10 shows that the relative transport ratio behaves exactly as the normalized wave power coefficient, a result to be expected because for large values of  $u_{mb}/W$ , most of the sediment transport is by suspension.

# MODEL CALIBRATION

Laboratory and field data available for calibrating and evaluating the longshore transport model are relatively limited. Greer and Madsen (1978) reviewed existing field data and concluded that Komar and Inman's (1970) sand tracer studies at El Moreno and Silver Strand Beaches were the most reliable. Very recently, a series of large-scale field experiments, termed the Nearshore Sediment Transport Study, have been conducted at two Southern California beaches. Details of the studies may be found in Gable (1979, 1981); however, the data from these studies are only now becoming available for analysis and thus will not be considered in the present study.

Laboratory data are also very limited. In the present case, measurements must include the incident wave conditions, the mean longshore current, the equilibrium beach slope, and the total longshore sediment transport rate. Following the study by Ostendorf and Madsen (1979), selected data from Saville (1950) and Shay and Johnson (1951) will be used in the present study. A summary of the field and laboratory data used in the present study may be found in Table 1.

The numerical calibration procedure is as follows. In reference to Equations 50, 52, and 56, the present longshore transport model has three unknown parameters: the drag coefficient,  $c_f$ ; the bedload efficiency,  $\epsilon_B$ ; and the suspended load efficiency,  $\epsilon_S$ . Using Ostendorf and Madsen's longshore current model, the drag coefficient is estimated from the measured mean longshore current. In the process, estimates for  $E_b$ ,  $n_b$ ,  $\alpha_b$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\gamma_b$ ,  $\delta_c$ , P, and  $u_{mb}$  are also obtained. These parameters completely define the longshore current distribution. Next, the distribution of <ip> $^{\star}$  is calculated as a function of  $\epsilon_B$  and  $\epsilon_S$  using Equation 52. Integrating this distribution via Equation 57, the estimated wave power coefficient,  $K_{est}$ , is calculated as a function of  $\epsilon_B$  and  $\epsilon_S$  yielding

$$\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{est}} = \varepsilon_{\mathbf{B}} \, \mathbf{K}_{1} + \varepsilon_{\mathbf{S}} \, \mathbf{K}_{2} + \varepsilon_{\mathbf{S}}^{2} \, \mathbf{K}_{3} \tag{60}$$

where

$$K_{1} = \frac{5\pi}{16} \frac{\gamma_{b}}{\tan \phi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \left[ \lambda \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{2} v^{*} x^{*} + 2 \delta_{c}^{2} \lambda^{3} n_{b}^{2} \cos^{2} \alpha_{b} v^{*}^{3} \right]$$

$$+ \frac{2}{\delta_{c} n_{b} \cos \alpha_{b}} \frac{\tan \beta}{\tan \phi} (u_{3})^{*} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{b}} \right)^{3} x^{*}^{3/2} \tan \alpha dx^{*}$$
(61)

$$K_2 = \frac{5\pi}{16} \frac{u_{mb}}{W} \int_0^\infty \left[ 2 \lambda (u3) \div \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_b} \right)^3 v \div x \div^{3/2} \right] dx \div$$
 (62)

$$K_3 = \frac{5\pi}{16} \frac{u_{mb}^2}{v^2} \tan\beta \int_0^\infty \left[ \frac{2}{\delta_c n_b \cos\alpha_b} (u5) * x^{*5/2} \tan\alpha \right] dx^*$$
 (63)

Estimates of  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ , and  $K_3$  for all data sets are included in Table 1. With use of these estimates, a nonlinear least-square procedure (Draper and Smith, 1966) was used to estimate the values of the bedload efficiency,  $\hat{\epsilon}_B$ , and the suspended load efficiency,  $\hat{\epsilon}_S$ , from the measured values of the wave power coefficient,  $K_{obs}$ . This procedure requires constructing a two-dimensional contour plot of the mean square error,  $S(\epsilon_B, \, \epsilon_S)$ , defined as

$$S(\varepsilon_B, \varepsilon_S) = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (K_{obs} - K_{est})^2$$
 (64)

where n is the total number of data pairs.

While following the above procedures, it was found that the data from El Moreno Beach appeared to be anomolous. When compared with the other data, the measured values of K appeared to be roughly three times too large. As a consequence, it was decided to calibrate the model using only the field data from Silver Strand Beach and the laboratory data. The resulting least-square contour plot is shown in Figure 11. The least-square estimates,  $\hat{\epsilon}_B$  and  $\hat{\epsilon}_S$ , were found to be equal to 0.2° and 0.025, respectively. Figure 11 also shows the 95% confidence contour, suggesting that the 95% bounds on  $\hat{\epsilon}_B$  and  $\hat{\epsilon}_S$  are  $0 \le \hat{\epsilon}_B \le 0.44$  and 0.016  $\le \hat{\epsilon}_S \le 0.031$ . Figure 12 shows a plot of the relative errors,  $K_{obs}/K_{est}$ , as a function of the estimated wave power coefficient. Clearly the relative error of the calibration data is approximately equally distributed about one, suggesting that  $\hat{\epsilon}_B$  and  $\hat{\epsilon}_S$  are unbiased.

Figure 12 also shows the relative errors of the El Moreno Beach data. These errors show that the measured wave power coefficients are seriously underestimated. One explanation for this behavior is that the transport processes at El Moreno Beach may have been significantly different than those at Silver Strand Beach and in the laboratory. In particular, the steep beach face and small wave heights produced waves which broke on the beach face itself. It would be expected that swash zone transport processes would predominate under these conditions. Observations have shown that the swash zone is a region of abnormally high suspended sediment concentrations and transport, and as a result, it appears plausible that the present model would tend to underestimate transport in this region.

The least square estimates,  $\hat{\epsilon}_R$  and  $\hat{\epsilon}_S$ , are encouraging because they are similar in size to the values estimated by Bagnold for stream flow. Bagnold (1966) analyzed data from laboratory and field measurements of sediment transport rates in channel flow and estimated that  $\varepsilon_{\rm R} \cong 0.13$ and  $\epsilon_{S}\cong 0.01$ . The fact that the present estimates are roughly twice these values is not improbable. In the case of the bedload efficiency, most of the transport in the surfzone is suspension, and the total transport rate is relatively insensitive to the estimated value of the bedload efficiency. This is reflected in the relatively large error bounds on  $\hat{\epsilon}_{\mathbf{p}}$ . Bagnold's stream-based estimate clearly falls within the allowable error. In the case of the suspended sediment efficiency, Bagnold's estimate does not fall within the bounds of the present estimate. This may reflect the different turbulence structure of the surfzone relative to the stream flow. In fact, the surfzone turbulence simulation model developed by Johns (1980) suggests that the turbulence energy density near the bed is dominated by the turbulence energy production at the face of the bore as opposed to that generated by the shear at the bed. The latter is clearly the dominant process in stream flow. As a result, it is not surprising that the suspended sediment efficiency is enhanced in the surfzone.

### CONCLUDING REMARKS

The present sediment transport model incorporates a wide range of simplifying assumptions. While these assumptions are necessary due to the complexity of actual surfzone processes, it is believed that they have some physical basis.

A number of assumptions used in the present model share a common basis with many longshore current models. These assumptions include: the use of linear shallow water wave theory, linear breaker height variation across the surfzone, and a bed stress formulation which is quadratic in velocity and has a zero phase lag. Some of these assumptions are better justified than others. Guza and Thornton (1980) have shown that linear wave theory does a surprisingly good job of predicting oscillatory velocity magnitudes from local water depth measurements. Laboratory measurements (Bowen et al., 1968) have shown that for normal incident waves, a linear breaker height variation across the surfzone is reasonably accurate. The quadratic stress formulation, however, appears more open to question. Laboratory and theoretical studies of purely oscillatory turbulent boundary layers have shown that the nearbottom water velocity lags the bed shear stress in phase by approximately 30 degrees (Fisher et al., 1974; Jonsson and Carleson, 1976; Jonsson, 1980; Smith, 1977; Grant and Madsen, 1979). The applicability of these studies inside the surfzone is unknown. The bore propagation model developed by Johns (1980), however, appears to be more realistic of surfzone conditions. This model suggests that a quadratic shear stress model with a constant drag coefficient underestimates the magnitude of peak bed stresses which occur under the face of the bore. Despite these problems, the quadratic shear stress model is utilized in most longshore current models because it is well-suited to a vertically integrated formulation.

The present energetics-based sediment transport model also uses vertically integrated equations. As a consequence, no details of the vertical distribution of suspended sediment flux are resolved. A further consequence of using vertically integrated equations is that the sediment

transports are assumed to respond to the nearbottom water velocity in an instantaneous, quasi-steady manner. This assumption is probably valid for bedload transport (except for a phase lag) because the thickness of the bedload layer is small and can respond quickly to the instantaneous bed shear stress. The suspended sediment transport, however, is distributed over a greater layer thickness, typically on the order of several centimeters. Assuming a layer thickness, £, and a sediment fall velocity, W, the characteristic time constant for the sediment transport layer is £/W, which is typically on the order of 1 to 2 seconds. For most planar beaches with incident wave periods of roughly 8 seconds, it appears that the quasi-steady assumption is reasonable.

For rippled bottoms, the situation is more complicated. Inman and Bowen (1963) found that in the laboratory, simple phase-independent sediment transport models are inadequate for combined oscillatory and steady flow over a rippled bottom. They found such flows to exhibit a complex phase-dependent behavior associated with vortex-induced suspension occurring over the ripple crests. As a consequence, the present model is probably most useful in describing sediment transport inside the surfzone, where plane bed conditions usually prevail. Limiting the model to this region also minimizes the effects of neglecting the threshold stress condition for sediment transport due to the stronger steady currents found there.

Other uncertainties of the present model include the use of constant bedload and suspended load efficiency factors. Although constant values have been found to be adequate in steady stream flow (Bagnold, 1966), their adequacy in time-varying flow is unknown.

Despite the above limitations, the present model does exhibit certain behavior observed in nature. This is most evident in its predictions of the equilibrium beach slope. The present study substantiates Bowen's (1981) results; coarse-grained beaches are steeper than fine-grained beaches and short-period, large-amplitude waves are erosive. It is also encouraging that the present model produces results similar to the wave power equation. To a large degree, however, this is the result of both approaches being based on energy considerations. Finally, the

fact that the bedload and suspended load efficiency factors estimated from surfzone data are similar in size to the values estimated from stream flow lends further credence to the model.

In closing, several comments can be made concerning improvements to the model. It is clear from the above discussion that many of the details of the sediment transport processes are hidden by the use of vertically integrated equations. In part, this is justified by the resulting mathematical simplicity and by the lack of adequate data to validate more sophisticated boundary layer models. The latter, however, is changing due to the advent of more sophisticated sensors. Clearly, if significant progress is to be made, models which predict the details of the boundary layer flow field and sediment concentration distribution will have to be developed for the surfzone. If simple predictive equations are desired, it is always best to develop simplifying assumptions based on a knowledge of the complete solution.

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Table 1. Data Relating Longshore Sediment Transport to Wave and Beach Characteristics

				: [			0									
Run	T (sec)	н (с <b>іі</b> )	αb (deg)	n <sub>b</sub>	χ <sup>Φ</sup>	tanβ	w/dm	v V (cm/sec)	I (dyneš/sec)	c <sub>f</sub>	~	Ф	×	K <sub>2</sub>	ж 3	Kobs
					Saville	e Labor	Laboratory (	(grain diameter	= 0.30	mm; w = 4	4.0 cm/	cm/sec)				
	0.74	4.61	7.0	0.68	1.01	0.132	8.0	8.6	1,793	0.016	0.81	0.18	0.543	1.82	15.6	0.0085
~	0.85	4.61	6.4	0.59	1.05	0.133	8.1	8.2	3,094	0.015	0.84	0.17	0.551	1.81	18.6	0.165
<u>س</u>	0.94	4.73	6.0	0.54	1.07	0.133	8.3	7.6	4,803	0.014	0.85	0.18	0.554	1.85	20.9	0.255
*	1.00	4.71	5.8	0.51	1.08	0.133	8.3	7.9	4,372	0.016	0.88	0.16	0.565	1.87	24.9	0.247
2	97.0	3.06	7.3	0.71	1.00	0.133	8.3	12.2	2,302	0.013	0.78	0.22	0.539	1.94	13.5	0.0082
9	0.85	5.12	9.9	0.62	1.04	0.133	8.5	8.6	3,749	0.014	0.82	0.19	0.547	1.94	18.2	0.146
^	0.99	5.00	5.9	0.52	1.08	0.133	8.5	7.3	6,789	0.015	0.87	0.17	0.567	1.92	23.8	0.320
				Shay	and	Johnson Laboratory	aborato	ry (grain	diameter = 0.	30 mm; w	0.4=	сm/sec	_			
	1.08	5.06	5.7	0.48	1.09	0.116	8.7	78	5,034	0.012	0.87	0.14	0.567	1.99	22.7	0.242
7	1.00	4.71	5.8	0.51	1.08	0.112	8.3	79	5,665	0.012	0.86	91.0	0.555	1.90	19.2	0.320
<u>د</u>	0.86	5.18	9.9	0.63	1.03	960.0	8.5	, 1ª	2,933	0.017	0.87	0.07	0.556	1.97	21.1	0.111
				×	Komar El	Moreno	Beach	(grain dia	diameter = $0.60$	3 . ma	9.5 cm	cm/sec)				
-	2.75	39.3	8.6	0.53	1.07	0.138	10.7	50.0	45.1 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	9700.0	0.70	0.36	0.606	3 02	22.1	0.70
7	4.0	45.3	15.9	0.39	1.11	0.138	11.7	51.6	84.4 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0091	89.0	0.28	0.631	3.26	48.7	08.0
<u>س</u>	3.4	31.7	18.9	0.38	1.11	0.138	8.6	43.0	25.7 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0106	0.67	97.0	0.663	2.84	43.2	66.0
4	3.1	29.9	12.5	0.41	1.10	0.138	9.5	14.1	9.9 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0358	8 × °	0.074	0.710	2.27	99.0	1.00
2	4.5	40.5	7.9	0.32	1.12	0.138	11.0	22.4	14.6 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0104	6.3	0.24	0.550	2.33	7.67	0.65
9	3.75	45.8	13.4	0.45	1.10	0.138	11.7	8.84	42.8 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	6.0092	0 70	62.0	0.607	3.12	42.4	0.63
_	6.4	47.7	2.2	0.32	1.12	0.138	12.¢	16.9	6.1 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0638	0.88	19.0	0.434	2.11	20.9	0.93
∞	4.8	39.9	7.9	0.30	1.12	0.138	11.0	10.3	8.9 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0214	0.94	0.1.	099.0	2.54	10.5	99.0
6	2.9	31.4	3.4	0.45	1.10	0.138	6.6	7.2	2.9 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0065	0.95	0.12	0.616	2.24	54.7	0.59
2	3.6	40.4	2.8	0.41	1.10	0.138	10.9	16.4	20.8 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0014	06.0	0.41	0.485	2.13	22.3	1.20
				Комаг	ar Silver	er Stra	Strand Beach	(grain	diameter = 0.1	.175 mm; w	= 2.0	Cm/sec)	,			
	11.0	144	5.0	0.35	0.844	0.34	86.5	55.9	30.2 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	c.014	0.74	0.11	0.423	17.0	238	07.0
2	10.6	82.7	6.1	0.27	878.0	0.034	65.5	14.6	47.1 × 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0053	06.0	69.0	0.441	12.4	0.59	98.0
~	8.9	81.4	2.2	0.32	0.846	0.034	65.0	12.6	37.9 x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.0026	6.93	0.06	0.422	12.1	265	0.70
			7	7			7		L		-	T	7	]		

Assumed.

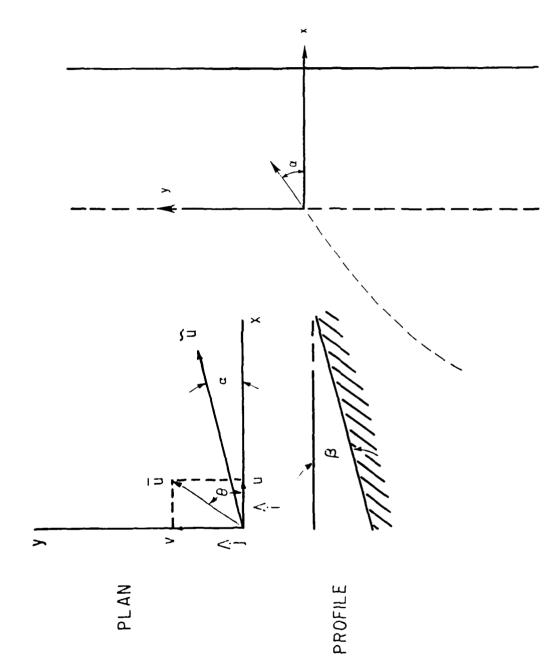


Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing the position of the beach, the breakpoint, and the steady and oscillatory water velocities, u and u, within the surfzone.

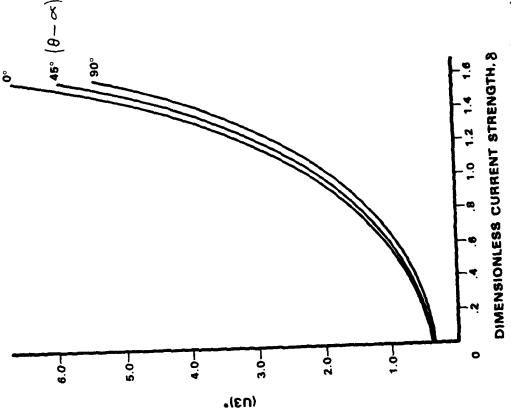


Figure 2. Relationship between the integral (u3)\* and the dimensionless steady current strength,  $\delta$ , for different angles between the steady and oscillatory water velocities,  $\theta^{-\alpha}$ .

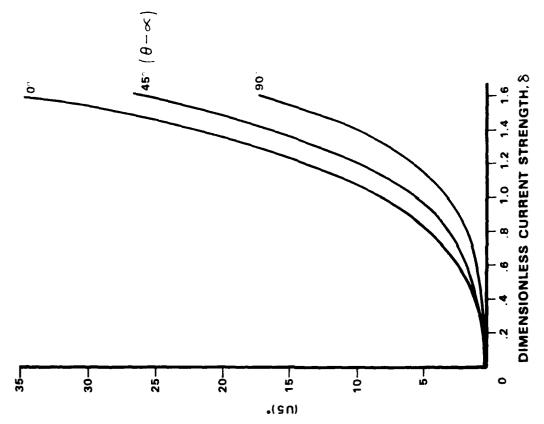


Figure 3. Relationship between the integral (u5)\* and the dimensionless steady current strength,  $\delta$ , for different angles between the steady and oscillatory water velocities,  $\theta$ - $\phi$ .

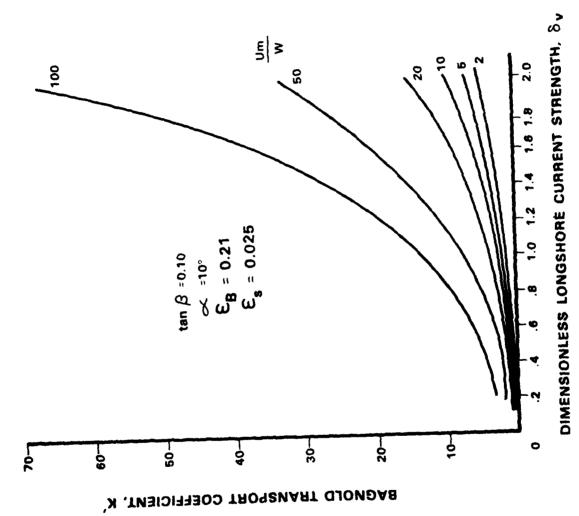


Figure 4. Relationship between Bagnold's osculatory transport coefficient. K', and the dimensionless longshore current strength,  $\delta_{\nu}$ , for different values of the velocity ratio  $u_{m}/W$ .

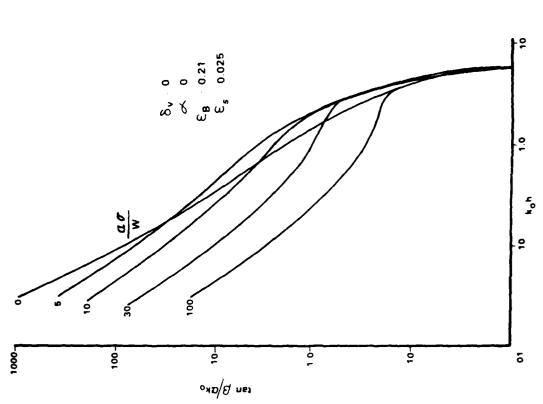
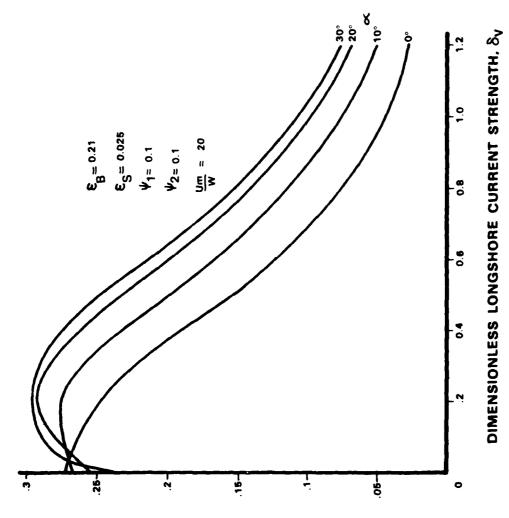


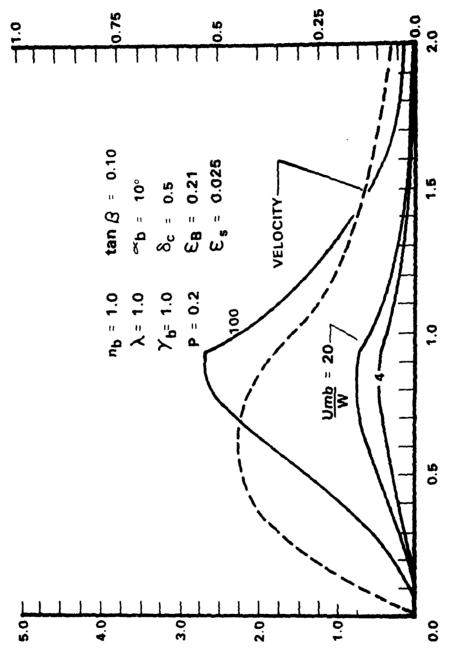
Figure 5. Relationship between the normalized equilibrium beach slope,  $\tan \beta/ak_o$ , and the dimensionless depth,  $k_oh$ , for different values of the parameter  $a\sigma/W$ . Normal incident waves are assumed.



EQUILIBRIUM BEACH SLOPE,

Figure 6. Relationship between the equilibrium beach slope,  $\tan\beta$ , and the dimensionless longshore current strength,  $\delta_{v}$ , for different local wave angles,  $\alpha$ .

DIMENSIONLESS LONGSHORE CURRENT, V.



DIMENSIONLESS LONGSHORE TRANSPORT RATE, i'

## DIMENSIONLESS DISTANCE OFFSHORE, x\*

Figure 7. Dimensionless surfzone total load sediment transport and velocity profiles for different values of the velocity ratio, umb/W.

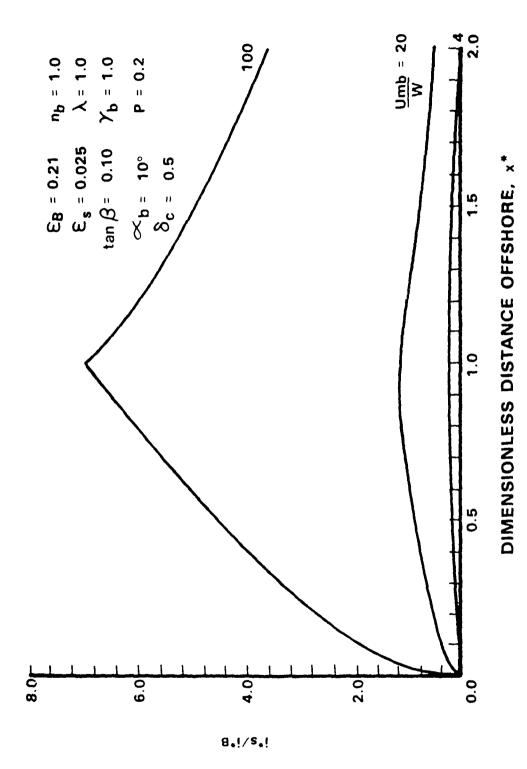
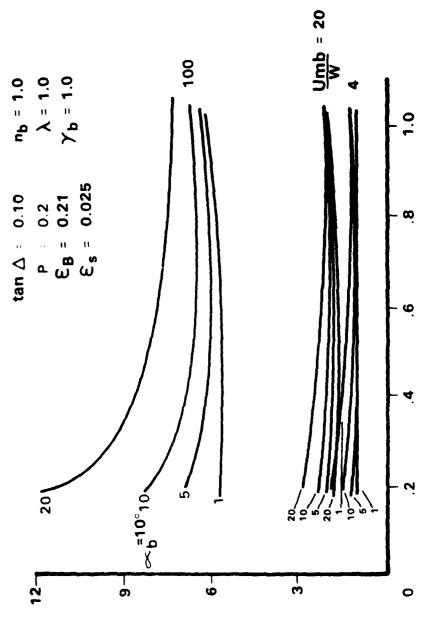


Figure 8. Surfzone distribution of the sediment transport ratio  $i_s^*/i_b^*$ , for different values of the velocity ratio  $u_{mb}/W$ .





# RELATIVE LONGSHORE CURRENT STRENGTH, &c. Figure 9. Relationship between the normalized wave power coefficient, K\*, and the relative lonshore current strength, \( \delta\_c\), for different values of the velocity ratio, umb/W.

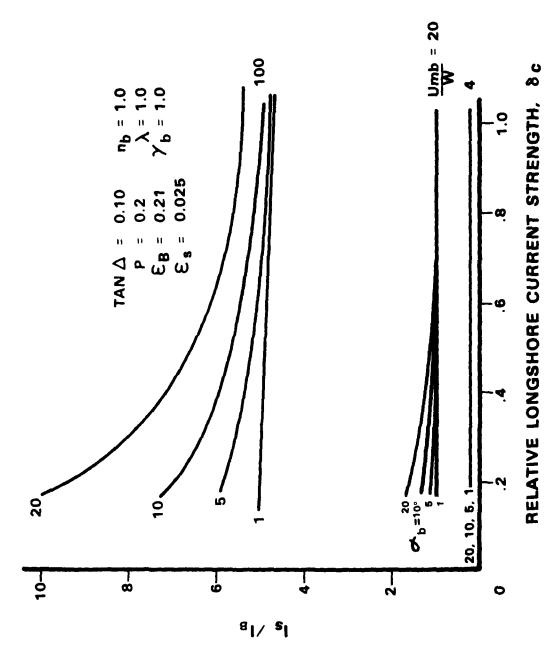


Figure 10. Relationship between the ratio of the sediment transport ratio,  $I_s/I_B$ , and the relative longshore current strength,  $\delta_c$ , for different values of the velocity ratio  $u_{mb}/W$ .

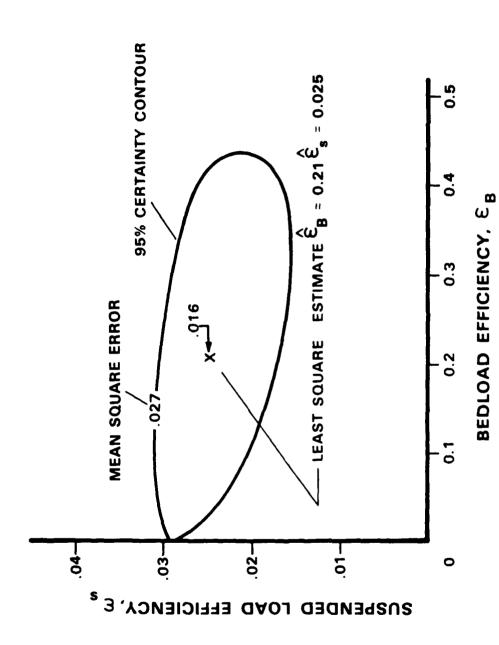


Figure 11. Least square estimates of the bedload sediment transport efficiency,  $\epsilon_{\rm B}$ , and the suspended sediment transport efficiency,  $\epsilon_{\rm S}$ , based on laboratory and field data.

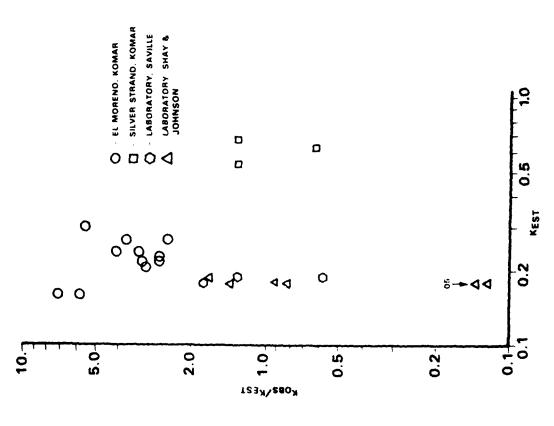


Figure 12. Comparison between the estimated and observed wave power coefficients for several laboratory and field studies.

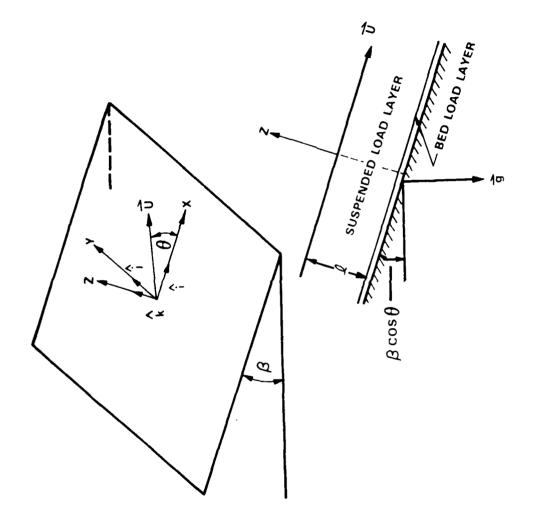


Figure 13. Schematic diagram used in developing a general form suspended sediment transport model.

### Appendix

### A GENERAL DERIVATION OF BAGNOLD'S SUSPENDED SEDIMENT TRANSPORT EQUATION

For simplicity, we first consider steady two-dimensional stream flow over a planar bed with slope  $\tan\beta$ . The water flows with velocity  $\vec{u}(z)$  over a depth h. The x-coordinate is directed downslope and the z-coordinate is directed perpendicular and upward from the bed. The origin is at the base of the bed.

From geometry, the rate of energy production of the stream,  $w_{\text{stream}}$ , is equal to

$$w_{\text{stream}} = \int_{0}^{h} \rho_{\text{a}} g \sin\beta \vec{u} \cdot \hat{i} dz$$
 (A1)

where  $\rho_{\boldsymbol{a}}$  is the apparent density of the sediment-ladened water. This may be expressed as

$$\rho_{a} = (\rho_{s} - \rho)N + \rho \tag{A2}$$

where  $\rho_s$  = density of the sediment grains

N = local volume concentration of solids

 $\rho$  = density of sediment-free water

Assuming that the suspended sediment moves downstream with approximately the local water velocity,  $\vec{u}$ , then Equations A1 and A2 may be combined to yield

$$w_{\text{stream}} = (\rho_{\text{s}} - \rho) \text{ g sin}\beta \int_{0}^{h} \vec{u} \cdot \hat{i} dz + \omega$$
 (A3)

where w is the sediment-free stream power.

Following Bagnold, we define an immersed weight suspended sediment transport rate per unit area bed,  $\vec{i}_S$ , as

$$\vec{i}_S = (\rho_s - \rho) g \cos \beta \int_0^h N \vec{u} dz$$
 (A4)

Bagnold (1963, 1966) assumed that the rate of energy dissipation per unit area of bed associated with this transport of sediment,  $\omega_{\rm sed}$ , is equal to the sediment load times its fall velocity, i.e.,

$$w_{\text{sed}} = (\rho_s - \rho) g \cos \beta W \int_0^h N dz$$
 (A5)

where W is the sediment fall velocity. Combining Equations A4 and A5, we find

$$w_{\text{sed}} = \frac{\left|\frac{1}{I_S}\right| w}{I_I} \tag{A6}$$

where

$$\bar{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{\left| \int_{0}^{h} \mathbf{N} \, \dot{\mathbf{u}} \, d\mathbf{z} \right|}{\int_{0}^{h} \mathbf{N} \, d\mathbf{z}}$$
(A7)

Bagnold's critical hypothesis is that the rate of energy dissipation associated with the suspended sediment transport,  $\mathbf{w}_{sed}$ , is related to the total rate of energy production of the stream,  $\mathbf{w}_{stream}$ , through a constant suspended load efficiency factor,  $\mathbf{\epsilon}_{s}$ , so that

$$w_{\text{sed}} = \varepsilon_{\text{S}} w_{\text{stream}}$$
 (A8)

Combining Equations A3, A4, A6, and A8, we obtain an equation for the magnitude of the suspended sediment transport rate

$$\begin{vmatrix} \vec{i}_S \end{vmatrix} = \varepsilon_S \frac{\bar{u}}{\bar{w}} (\tan\beta \hat{i}_S \cdot \hat{i} + w)$$
 (A9)

It should be noted that Equation A9 does not reduce to Bagnold's streambased transport model except for negligible slopes. To see this, we rearrange Equation A9 to become

By inspection, Equation A10 differs from Bagnold's stream transport Equation 1 by the inclusion of the factor  $\varepsilon_{\rm S}$  in the denominator. Conceptually this difference arises because Bagnold assumed that the stream power contribution from the suspended sediment load contributes directly to the suspended sediment transport rate instead of through an efficiency factor as in Equation A9. If Bagnold's hypothesis is correct, then Equation A9 should read

$$\begin{vmatrix} \vec{i}_S \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\bar{u}}{\bar{w}} (\tan\beta \hat{i}_S \cdot \hat{i} + \epsilon_S w)$$
 (A11)

This subtle difference between Equations A9 and All is negligible for the small bedslopes normally in stream flow conditions. It becomes extremely important, however, with respect to equilibrium beach slopes as seen in the main body of the paper. This is because Equation All (or Equation 1) predicts autosuspension conditions (infinite downslope transport rates) when  $|\bar{u}|$  exceeds W/tanß. Interestingly, this condition can be exceeded momentarily on natural sand beaches. For autosuspension to occur in the present model, however,  $|\bar{u}|$  must exceed W/( $\epsilon_{\rm S}$  tanß). Since  $1/\epsilon_{\rm S}\cong 40$ , this condition is much less apt to be met.

Although Equation A9 was developed for two-dimensional stream flow, it seems plausible that it can be modified to include the more general situation of a steady flow over a planar sloping bed having an arbitrary orientation relative to the direction of fluid flow. Under these more general conditions, the direction of the sediment transport rate need not be colinear with the direction of fluid flow. In addition to moving with the nearbottom water velocity, the downslope component of suspended sediment load can be expected to produce a downslope-directed sediment transport.

In the general case of suspended sediment transport, sediment can be expected to be distributed throughout the turbulent boundary layer region. In the case of fully developed stream flow, this is roughly the total water depth, but for oscillatory flow the boundary layer thickness is much less. Smith (1977) and Grant and Madsen (1979) show that the turbulent boundary layer thickness under waves is approximately  $(u^*)_m/\sigma$ , where  $(u^*)_m$  is the magnitude of the oscillatory shear velocity and  $\sigma$  is the angular frequency of the waves. For typical nearshore wave conditions, the boundary layer thickness is on the order of several centimeters.

Within the boundary layer region, the sediment concentration increases exponentially towards the bed. Consequently, most of the sediment is found relatively near the bed. For reasons that will become evident, it is mathematically convenient to assume that most of the sediment is transported near the bed, within the logarithmic or "law of the wall" portion of the boundary layer, where the shear stress is constant. For

steady two-dimensional stream flow, the logarithmic boundary layer can be assumed to be the lower one-tenth of the stream depth (Smith and McLean, 1977). For oscillatory turbulent boundary layers, Smith (1977) concludes that the logarithmic layer thickness is 0.02 times the wave boundary layer, while Grant and Madsen (1979) assume that it is the full boundary layer thickness as defined by  $(u^*)_m/\sigma$ . The latter will be assumed in the present development.

Consider a steady current,  $\vec{u}$ , flowing over a planar bed with slope  $\tan \beta$  (Figure 13). The current flows parallel to the bed and at an angle  $\theta$  relative to the downslope-directed x-axis. The y-axis is directed across slope and the z-axis is directed perpendicular and upward from the bed. The origin is assumed to be at the top of the bedload layer, which is nominally a few grain diameters above the stationary bed. As discussed, the suspended sediment transport is assumed to occur relatively near the bed, as compared with the total water depth. Although in practice the local transport rate will be colinear with the local shear stress, it is assumed for simplicity that the direction of the suspended sediment transport rate is co-linear with the shear stress at the base of the suspended sediment layer.

Considering now the limited nearbottom region of suspended sediment transport and assuming that steady, nonaccelerating conditions exist, the momentum equation is

$$(\rho_{s} - \rho)N \overrightarrow{g} + \overrightarrow{\nabla} \cdot \overrightarrow{T} = 0 \tag{A12}$$

where  $\overrightarrow{T}$  is the sediment-ladened fluid stress tensor, which has been corrected for the sediment-free fluid pressure,  $\rho gz$ . Boundary conditions for the flow are as follows. At the top of the suspension layer, the normal stress,  $T_{zz}$ , is zero. At the base of the suspension layer, the current exerts a shear stress,  $T_{o}$ , in the  $\theta$  direction. Assuming, however, that the suspension layer is sufficiently small, the current-related shear stress can be assumed to be applied to the top of the suspension layer. This is equivalent to assuming that the current-related shear

stress is constant throughout the suspension layer, as is consistent with a logarithmic velocity profile. Assuming that the logarithmic boundary layer thickness is  $\ell$ , the boundary conditions may be expressed as

$$T_{xz} = T_{o} \cos \theta$$

$$z = \ell: \qquad T_{yz} = T_{o} \sin \theta \qquad (A13)$$

$$T_{zz} = 0$$

Integrating the x, y, and z components of Equation A12 and evaluating the integration constants with Equation A13, we obtain

$$T_{xz} = (\rho_s - \rho) g \sin\beta \int_z^{\ell} N dz + T_0 \cos\theta$$
 (A14)

$$T_{yz} = T_{o} \sin\theta \tag{A15}$$

$$T_{zz} = (\rho_s - \rho) g \cos\beta \int_z^{\ell} N dz$$
 (A16)

Recognizing that the shear stress,  $\overrightarrow{T}$ , on the x-y plane is calculated as

$$\vec{T} = T_{xz} \hat{i} + T_{yz} \hat{j}$$
 (A17)

the shear stress at the base of the suspension layer becomes

$$\vec{T}\Big|_{z=0} = (T_g + T_o \cos\theta)\hat{i} + T_o \sin\theta \hat{j}$$
 (A18)

where T  $_{\mbox{\scriptsize g}}$  is the downslope component of stress due to the immersed weight of the suspended sediment and is equal to

$$T_{g} = (\rho_{s} - \rho) g \sin \beta \int_{\Omega}^{2} N dz$$
 (A19)

Assuming that T  $_{\rm g}$  << T  $_{\rm o},$  which is consistent with the assumption of a small bedslope, then

$$\left| \overrightarrow{T} \right|_{z=0} \cong T_0 + T_g \cos \theta \tag{A20}$$

Thus

$$\frac{\vec{T}}{|\vec{T}|} \bigg|_{z=0} \cong (\cos\theta + \frac{T_g}{T_o} \sin^2\theta)\hat{i} + (\sin\theta - \frac{T_g}{T_o} \sin\theta \cos\theta)\hat{j} \qquad (A21)$$

Noting, however, that

$$\frac{\vec{u}}{\begin{vmatrix} \vec{v} \\ \vec{u} \end{vmatrix}} = \cos\theta \hat{i} + \sin\theta \hat{j}$$

then

$$\frac{\vec{T}}{|\vec{T}|}\Big|_{z=0} = \frac{\vec{u}}{|\vec{u}|} + \frac{T_g}{T_o} (\sin^2\theta \hat{i} - \sin\theta \cos\theta \hat{j})$$
 (A22)

As previously mentioned, the suspended sediment transport rate is assumed to be directed parallel to  $\vec{T}_{z=0}$  , thus

$$\vec{1}_{S} = \left| \vec{1}_{S} \right| \frac{\vec{\uparrow}}{\left| \vec{\uparrow} \right|}_{z=0} \tag{A23}$$

Combining Equations A9, A22, and A23, we obtain to  $o(\epsilon_S^2)$ 

$$\vec{i}_{S} = \frac{\varepsilon_{S}}{W} w \vec{u} + \frac{\varepsilon_{S}^{2}}{W^{2}} \tan \beta w | \vec{u} | \cos \theta \vec{u}$$

$$+ \frac{\varepsilon_{S}}{W^{2}} \tan \beta \frac{w^{2}}{T_{o}} | \vec{u} | (\sin^{2}\theta \hat{i} - \sin\theta \cos \theta \hat{j})$$
(A24)

where it has been assumed that  $\vec{u} \cong |\vec{u}|$ .

Assuming next that

$$T_o = \rho c_f \left| \vec{u} \right|^2 \tag{A25}$$

and

$$w = \rho c_f \left| \vec{u} \right|^3 \tag{A26}$$

where  $\mathbf{c_f}$  is the drag coefficient for the bed, then Equation A24 becomes

$$\vec{i}_{S} = \rho c_{f} \frac{\varepsilon_{S}}{W} \left| \vec{u} \right|^{3} \vec{u} + \rho c_{f} \tan \beta \frac{\varepsilon_{S}^{2}}{W^{2}} \left| \vec{u} \right|^{5} \hat{i}$$
 (A27)

Assuming now that the nearbottom velocity vector is a time-varying quantity,  $\vec{u}_t$ , and that the suspended sediment transport rate responds to the instantaneous velocity in a quasi-steady manner, a vector,  $\vec{k}_{St}$ , may be defined as

$$\vec{K}_{St} = \frac{\vec{i}_{St}}{w}$$
 (A28)

Thus,

$$\vec{R}_{St} = \frac{\varepsilon_{S} |\vec{u}_{t}|}{W} \left( \frac{\vec{u}_{t}}{\vec{u}_{t}} + \varepsilon_{S} \tan \beta |\vec{u}_{t}| \hat{i} \right)$$
(A29)

Finally, if the bed slopes in the negative i-direction, Equation A29 becomes equal to Equation 9 in the main body of text.

### NOMENCLATURE

a	Wave amplitude (1)
С	Phase velocity (1/t)
c <sub>1</sub> - c <sub>3</sub>	Modified Longuet-Higgins constants
c <sub>f</sub>	Bed drag coefficient
E	Wave energy (m/t²)
g	Gravity (2/t²)
н	Wave height (1)
h	Water depth (1)
i	Local sediment transport rate (m/t3)
1	Local sediment transport rate vector (m/t <sup>3</sup> )
i	Unit vector in onshore direction
I <sub>B</sub>	Spatially integrated longshore bedload sediment transport rate $(m-\ell/t^3)$
<sup>i</sup> B	Local bedload sediment transport rate (m/t3)
i <sub>B</sub>	Local bedload sediment transport rate vector (m/t3)
ic	Characteristic local longshore sediment transport rate $(m/t^3)$
I <sub>R</sub>	Spatially integrated, total load, longshore sediment transport rate $(m-\ell/t^3)$
<sup>I</sup> s	Spatially integrated longshore suspended load sediment transport rate $(m-2/t^3)$
is	Local suspended sediment transport rate (m/t3)
is	Local suspended sediment transport rate vector (m/t3)
<i<sub>x&gt;</i<sub>	Time-averaged local on-offshore sediment transport rate $(m/t^3)$
<iy></iy>	Time-averaged local longshore sediment transport rate $(m/t^3)$

<i*> y</i*>	Normalized time-averaged local longshore sediment transport rate
iθ	Local sediment transport rate in $\theta$ direction $(m/t^3)$
ĵ	Unit vector in longshore direction
K	Wave power coefficient
K'	Bagnold's oscillatory transport rate coefficient
K*	Normalized wave power coefficient
к <sub>1</sub> - к <sub>3</sub>	Wave power coefficient integrals
$\vec{k}_{Bt}$	Vector bedload wave power coefficient
Kest	Estimated wave power coefficient
K <sub>o</sub>	Wave power coefficient for negligible lateral mixing, longshore current strength, breaker angle, wave height, and orbital-velocity-to-fall-velocity ratio
Kobs	Observed wave power coefficient
<b>K</b> <sub>St</sub>	Vector suspended load wave power coefficient
k	Wave number (1/2)
k <sub>o</sub>	Deep water wave number $(1/l)$
<b>e</b>	Sediment layer thickness $(\ell)$
N	Volume concentration of solids
n	Wave energy transport function
n <sub>b</sub>	Finite breaker height factor
P	Lateral mixing parameter
P <sub>2</sub>	Longshore component of wave energy flux $(m-\ell/t^3)$
$S(\varepsilon_{B}, \varepsilon_{S})$	Mean square error of wave power coefficient estimates
T →	Wave period (t)
Ť, T <sub>ij</sub>	Sediment-ladened fluid stress tensor (m/t2)
T <sub>g</sub>	Downslope component of immersed sediment weight $(m/\ell-t^2)$

```
T
              Shear stress at the base of the suspension layer (m/\ell-t^2)
Tzz
              Normal stress at top of the suspension layer (m/\ell-t^2)
              Time (t)
t
ũ
              Mean velocity magnitude (\ell/t)
ũ
              Oscillatory surfzone velocity (1/t)
              Total vector velocity (1/t)
(u3)*
              Velocity magnitude integral
(u5)*
              Velocity magnitude integral
              Oscillatory velocity magnitude (2/t)
uma
(u*)<sub>m</sub>
              Oscillatory shear velocity magnitude (1/t)
              Mean water velocity in \theta direction (\ell/t)
u<sub>A</sub>
v
              Longshore current magnitude (1/t)
ν*
              Dimensionless longshore current distribution
              Characteristic longshore current magnitude (\ell/t)
A<sup>C</sup>
W
              Sediment full velocity (\ell/t)
              Shore normal coordinate (1)
x*
              Dimensionless surfzone position
              Shoreline position (1)
x<sub>S</sub>
              Breaker position (1)
x<sub>R</sub>
y
              Longshore coordinate (1)
              Vertical coordinate (1)
GREEK ALPHABET
              Wave angle (deg)
α
               Breaker angle (deg)
tanß
               Bed slope
Γ
               Lateral mixing coefficient
```

γ	Ratio of wave height to water depth
Δ	Bed angle modified for wave setup (deg)
δ	Dimensionless steady current strength
$\delta_{c}$	Relative longshore current strength
$\delta_{\mathbf{u}}$	Dimensionless onshore current strength
$\delta_{\mathbf{v}}$	Dimensionless longshore current strength
ε <sub>B</sub>	Bedload efficiency
$\epsilon_{ extsf{S}}$	Suspended load efficiency
θ	Steady current angle (deg)
λ	Finite longshore current factor
ρ	Fluid density $(m/l^3)$
$ ho_{f a}$	Apparent density of suspension $(m/\ell^3)$
$\rho_{\mathbf{s}}$	Sediment grain density $(m/\ell^3)$
σ	Wave frequency (1/t)
Ť	Bed shear stress vector (m/l-t2)
ф	Internal angle of friction (deg)
Ψ <sub>1</sub>	Velocity skewness factor
ψ <sub>2</sub>	Velocity skewness factor
w	Local rate of energy dissipation production $(m/t^3)$
ພ sed	Rate of energy dissipation associated with the suspended sediment transport $(m/t^3)$
w stream	Rate of energy production of a stream $(m/t^3)$
OTHER SYMBOL	uS .
< >	Time average quantity
11	Absolute value
<b>→</b>	Vector quantity

### SUBSCRIPTS

- b Break point quantity
- t Time varying quantity

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